

25 **Abstract**

26

27 In the last 10 years, knowledge of wild bees and apoid wasps' community dynamics has gained interest in urban
28 ecology focusing on the availability of floral resources in cities. Although unstudied, the urban environment
29 impacts the conditions of their nesting sites. Recent observations in the Brussels-Capital Region (Belgium) showed
30 that urban pavements can be an alternativenesting opportunity for ground-nesting Hymenoptera such as wild bees
31 and apoid wasps. Here, using citizen science, we investigated the richness of ground-nesting species living under
32 urban pavements, the preferences of the sidewalk type and joint size. We assessed the impact of soil texture under
33 the pavements on the nesting site selection for each ground-nesting species. A total of 22 species belonging to 10
34 families of wild bees and digger wasps with their associated kleptoparasites were identified around 89 sites in the
35 Brussels-Capital Region. Sandstone setts or concrete slabs with an unbound joint size around 1 cm were found to
36 be the best suitable urban pavements for the ground-nesting species. The soil texture under the pavement was
37 mainly sandy among our samples. Finally, we also suggest engineering management guidelines to support bee and
38 wasp species nesting under urban pavement in highly urbanized areas. Such observations pave the way for further
39 research in the field of urban ecology to develop multifunctional pavement designs that promote biodiversity.

40 Keywords: Anthophila, Apoidea, nesting behaviour, urban ecology, urban ecosystem, urban conservation

41

42 **Introduction**

43 Rapid urbanization is one of the most critical drivers of global biodiversity loss (Ives et al. 2016; Pauleit et al.
44 2016) (Wastian et al., 2016). Recognizing the role that cities play in tackling the global biodiversity crisis,
45 preserving and fostering local biodiversity has become a key objective for municipalities around the world (Pierce
46 et al. 2020). The goal of urban nature strategies, generally, is not only to protect and preserve biodiversity, but also
47 to enhance ecosystem functions, and to grant a now predominantly urban population access to nature in their day-
48 to-day life. Urban nature however sometimes sprouts in unexpected places, and urban dwellers, and ecologists
49 alike, have not paid much attention to the ecosystem that is spreading in the cracks and joints of urban pavements.
50 Urban pavements provide alternative nesting opportunities for certain ground-nesting species, but although the
51 sandy mounds that generally indicate their presence are known to be quite present in several European cities (pers.
52 comm. Volker Haeseler and Christian Schmid-Egger), only few studies have addressed urban pavements as
53 habitats for aculeate insects (notably Haeseler 1982; Pauly 2019a).

54 Hymenopteran communities are sensitive to urban landscape conversion (Buczowski and Richmond 2012; Geslin
55 et al. 2016; Corcos et al. 2019; Theodorou et al. 2020a): flower resources are becoming scarce under the pressure
56 of urban fragmentation, and urban soil is rendered impervious by concrete, asphalt and other pavement, which
57 makes the ground uninhabitable to ground-nesting hymenopterans (Burkman and Gardiner 2014; Harrison and
58 Winfree 2015; New 2015; Geslin et al. 2016; Wenzel et al. 2020a; Ayers and Rehan 2021). Research has shown a
59 decline in richness and size of urban bee communities as urbanisation increases (Ahrné et al. 2009; Fortel et al.
60 2014; Eggenberger et al. 2019), and the decline of predatory species like wasps (Abrahamczyk et al. 2020). These
61 are additionally affected in their ability to locate prey in large landscape, which is disrupted by the habitat
62 fragmentation caused by the urban matrix (Kareiva 1987), leading to changes in the community structure of apoid
63 wasps in cities (Christie and Hochuli 2009; Burkman and Gardiner 2014). Paradoxically, recent studies have
64 shown that cities can also serve as refuges for wild bee communities (Baldock et al. 2015; Hall et al. 2017;
65 Theodorou et al. 2020b). In urban areas, several factors can be potentially beneficial to hymenopteran
66 communities, and wild bees in particular: (i) the amount and coverage of biocidal particles in cities tends to be
67 lower than in the surrounding countryside, (ii) the urban heat island phenomenon favours the presence of
68 thermophilic species, (iii) the heterogeneity of urban patches offers a wide diversity of habitats with multiple
69 associated ecological niches and (iv) urban parks, gardens and other green spaces generally provide sufficient
70 floral resources distributed throughout the year (Fortel et al. 2016; Wenzel et al. 2020b; Fenoglio et al. 2021). A

71 surprisingly large number of cavity-nesting species might even benefit from artificial nesting aids (MacIvor 2017),
72 but the more than half of the 403 species of Belgian wild bees are nesting in the ground (Drossart et al. 2019).

73 Solitary bees build their nests underground. These typically consists of an entrance, surrounded by soil tumulus
74 (Fig. 1a), which extends into a main gallery branched into secondary galleries containing the larval cells that
75 contain food resources (a mixture of pollen and nectar) and one or multiple eggs each (Malyshev 1935; Michener
76 2007). Ground nesting behaviour is typical for Andrenidae and Melittidae families as well as the majority of
77 Halictidae and Colletidae families (Danforth et al. 2019). Apoid wasps - including families that have recently been
78 up-ranked (e.g., Philantidae, Psenidae, Bembicidae, Pemphredonidae) by Sann et al., (2018) - also play important
79 ecological roles in urban environments. Adults behave as flower visitors, and as predators they capture insect or
80 spider prey to feed their offspring (Bitsch and Leclercq 1993). In Belgium, 199 species of apoid wasps have been
81 documented with more than a half of them nesting in the ground (i.e., 107 spp.) (Pauly 1999; Rasmont and
82 Haubruge 2002). Some aculeate species may exhibit a collective nesting strategy in nest aggregation such as
83 *Cerceris* spp. (Willmer 1985; Polidori et al. 2006) or *Andrena* spp. (e.g. in Fellendorf et al. 2004). In ground-
84 nesting wild bees, sub-social and semi-social behavior is distributed especially among some *Lasioglossum* species
85 such as *Lasioglossum laticeps* (Schenck, 1869) (Packer 1983).

86 Bee and wasp species that nest in the ground can potentially also inhabit urban pavements, if the conditions are
87 met. Joint size might have a direct effect on the nesting ability of the bees and wasps: if the joint size is smaller
88 than their thorax size, they will not be able to dig a gallery. The soil texture (Cane 1991) , the soil cover (Nichols
89 et al. 2020), the soil compaction (Wuellner 1999; Sardiñas and Kremen 2014), the soil humidity (Wuellner 1999),
90 the soil temperature and its sun exposition (Potts and Willmer 1997), and the soil aspect (Cane 2015) can influence
91 the selection of the nesting site. In Brussel-Capital Region (BCR), the pavements are builded according to the
92 jointing material. Only the modular pavements (i.e., the slabs are separated by jointing material) are supposed to
93 host Hymenoptera nests. To reach the soil below the pavement plates, digging insects will have to enter through
94 the joint. The nature of the jointing material thus defines the hardness of the substrate and therefore influences the
95 ability of bees and wasps to tunnel into it, acting as a filter in nest site selection. Also write something very brief
96 about pavement types – it is very unclear what is meant.

97 As a pioneering study in the urban ecology of ground-nesting Hymenoptera, we addressed the following questions
98 about the community of wild bees and apoid wasps according to their nesting preferences in pavements: (i) what
99 species inhabit the pavements in the Brussels-Capital Region (BCR)? (ii) Is there a relationship between the size

100 of ground nesting species and the size of the joints? (iii) Does the pavements type have impacts species
101 composition? (iv) Which soil texture under the pavement is favoured by ground-nesting species? To address these
102 questions, we asked volunteers/engaged volunteers in data collection and asked citizens to look for nesting sites
103 throughout the city of Brussels. In a second step, the preidentified sites were visited and sampled by experts.
104 Finally, we characterized the edaphic features of the species identified. The implications of our results are
105 discussed in relation to the current challenges of designing urban pavements to encourage ground-nesting insects
106 and human-wildlife cohabitation in cities.

107 **Material and methods**

108 **Identification and validation of the potential study sites**

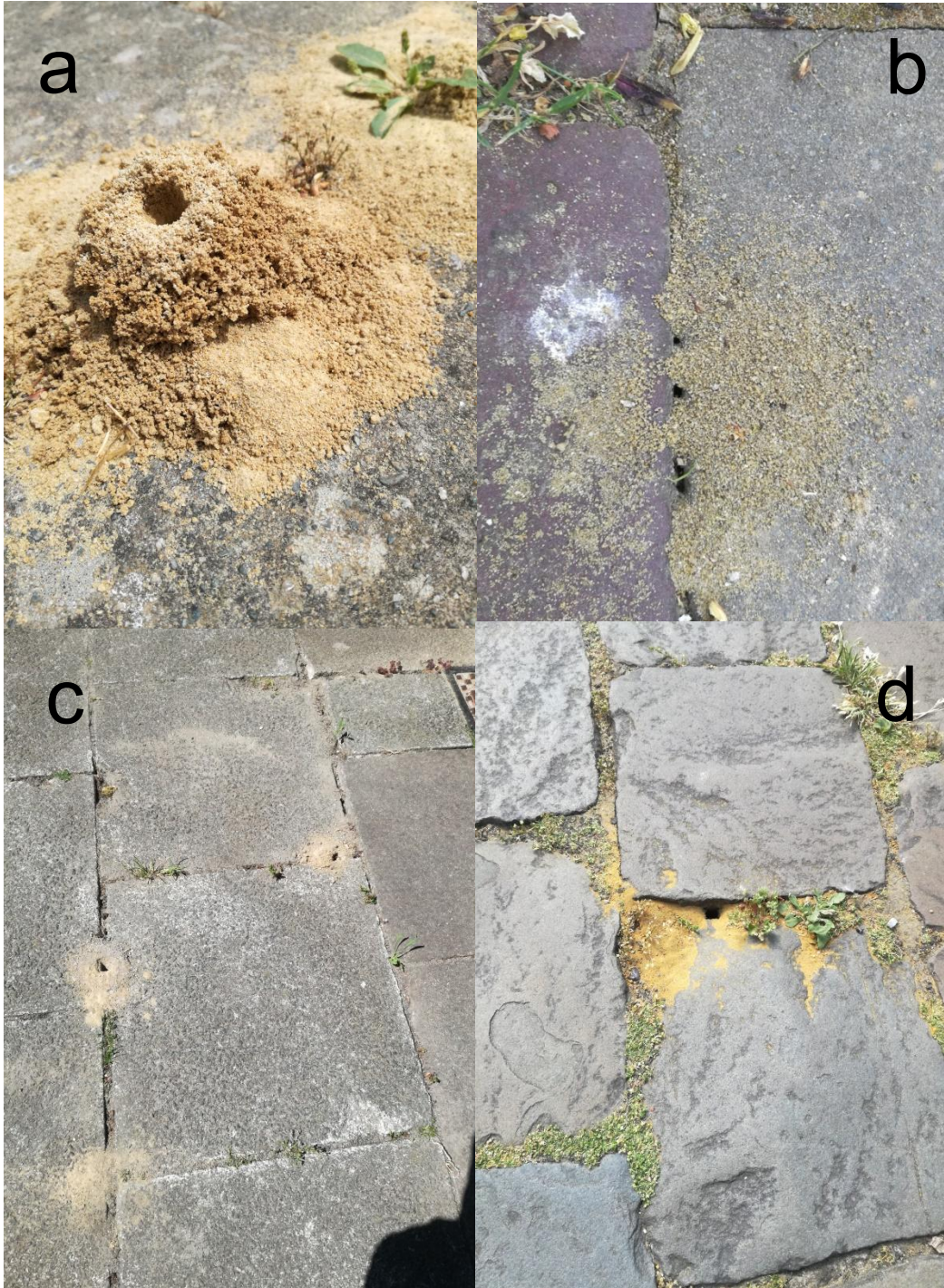
109 As part of a general assessment of wild bee communities in the Brussels-Capital Region (BCR), Pauly (2019a)
110 reported 4 nesting sites in urban pavements. In order to gain more knowledge about this highly understudied
111 habitat, we applied a crowdsourcing method based on citizen science (Newman et al. 2017). We first created and
112 actively disseminated a participatory survey to BCR citizens on social networks in collaboration with the
113 communication department of Brussels Environment and other key actors in BCR conservation (e.g., regional and
114 local institutions). The online form was launched on March 11, 2020 before the first emergence of the potential
115 hymenopteran insects (Pauly 2019a). The participatory survey ended on 17 July 2020. Participants were asked to
116 enter information on (i) the BCR municipality, (ii) the street name and building number, (iii) the date of the last
117 observation, (iv) an image of the nest or the insect (facultative). We removed observations (n = 74) unrelated to
118 taxa and location of our study sampling strategy :ant nests (Fig. 1b), cavity-nesting bees, and locations outside of
119 BCR. A total of 89 locations were found suitable for further field observation and visited within 1-7 days after
120 transmittal. On site we examined the pavement cover for 30-45 min. Field work was performed on sunny days
121 with clear sky, little wind (less than 15 km/h) and a daily minimum temperature of 15°C between 09:00 and 17:00
122 (Ahrné et al. 2009; Fortel et al. 2014). A site was validated if: (i) a bee or wasp showed evidence of entry or exit
123 into a nest between the paving slabs and/or (ii) a cuckoo species (i.e., cuckoo bee or wasp) patrolled near a sandy
124 mound on the pavement..

125 **Data collection on validated sites**

126 The number of nests was estimated by counting the sandy mounds. On each of the selected sites, each
127 morphologically distinct specimen was captured and killed *in situ* with ethyl acetate (C₄H₈O₂) for later species

128 identification. Joint size was measured on 6 nests randomly selected within a site using a millimetre bar near the
129 nest entrance . If more than one ground-nesting species was present at a site, measurements were taken randomly
130 across the site without distinguishing between species. The joint structure variable was added to the database as a
131 nominal qualitative variable with 2 modalities: degraded rigid joint (Fig. 1c) or unbound joint (Fig. 1d). The type
132 of pavement was assessed from photographs and classified according to 3 modalities: concrete slabs (Fig. 1c);
133 sandstone setts (Fig. 1d) and other types, including ceramic slabs, concrete pavement, limestone (Belgian blue
134 stone) and porphyry setts. Finally, the position of the nest on the pavement was recorded as a qualitative variable
135 according to the following nomenclature: pavement; front of house; internal yard; road with car traffic or other
136 (embankment, junction by pavement and embankment or junction by internal yard and pavement) The sand of the
137 mounds was collected randomly from 3-10 nest entrances (max. 50g) on pavements as corresponding to the soil
138 layer excavated by the digging activity of insects under the pavements (Fig. 1a). Based on preliminary results of
139 the substrate texture under pavements, sandy mounds seem to be a good proxy of soil texture (see in supplementary
140 information S1).

141



142

143 **Fig. 1** Nest pictures on pavements. Sandy mound (Auderghem, Brussels) (a). Ant nest (Anderlecht, Brussels) (b).

144 Degraded rigid joints of concrete slabs (Schaerbeek, Brussels) (c). Unbound joints of sandstone setts (Schaerbeek,

145 Brussels) (d). Pictures by Grégoire Noël.

146 **Laboratory data collection**

147 All collected specimens were prepared for identification following Mouret *et al.*, (2007). Several identification
148 keys were used to identify bee and wasp species (Bitsch and Leclercq 1993; Bitsch et al. 1997, 2007; Falk 2015;
149 Pauly 2019b). All identified bee specimens were checked against the reference collections of the Functional and
150 Evolutionary Entomology Laboratory (ULiège), the collections of Alain Pauly for captured Halictidae species and
151 the collections of Jean Leclercq for apoid wasp species.

152 Sand mound samples were weighed using a precision balance and passed through a sieve shaker (Haver & Boecker
153 VWR brand) for 10 minutes at an amplitude of 1 mm through five sieves with mesh sizes of 1 mm, 500 µm, 200
154 µm, 100 µm and 50 µm in order to distinguish sands from clays and silts (50 µm threshold) and to differentiate
155 between very fine, fine, medium and coarse sands. The particles retained by each sieve were then weighed and
156 their value converted to a percentage of the total sample volume. This conversion eliminates weight variations due
157 to sample moisture and provides a common basis for comparison between samples of different weights. Although
158 the particle rate of silts and clays was not distinguished, we can approximate the average and extreme textures of
159 the collected mounds using the texture triangle by halving the remaining percentages between the silt and clay
160 classes.

161 **Mapping and statistical analysis**

162 All analysis were performed in the R software environment (R Core Team 2020). Validated sites were mapped
163 using the *mapview* R package (Appelhans et al. 2019). The average mean joint size per site was then assigned to
164 the corresponding species. For the joint size, we used an ANOVA after descriptive statistical analysis of the data
165 to compare joint size measurements between selected ground-nesting species and between their respective
166 families. For statistical analysis, we excluded cuckoo species due to their nesting strategy and the specimens from
167 the families Bembicidae, Crabronidae, Psenidae and Pemphredonidae because we did not record their respective
168 joint sizes (see Table 1). A *post-hoc* Tukey test with adjustment for multiple comparisons was applied to compare
169 the pair mean of joint size. We also measured the inter-tegular distance (ITD) – the distance between the two wing
170 insertions - of female individuals only, which is a proxy for their size (Kendall et al. 2019) using a digital caliper
171 (Electronic Digital Caliper). We evenly distributed the ITD and joint size measurements by species present at the
172 site. A Gaussian linear regression was performed to test the relationship between species size and average mean
173 joint size.

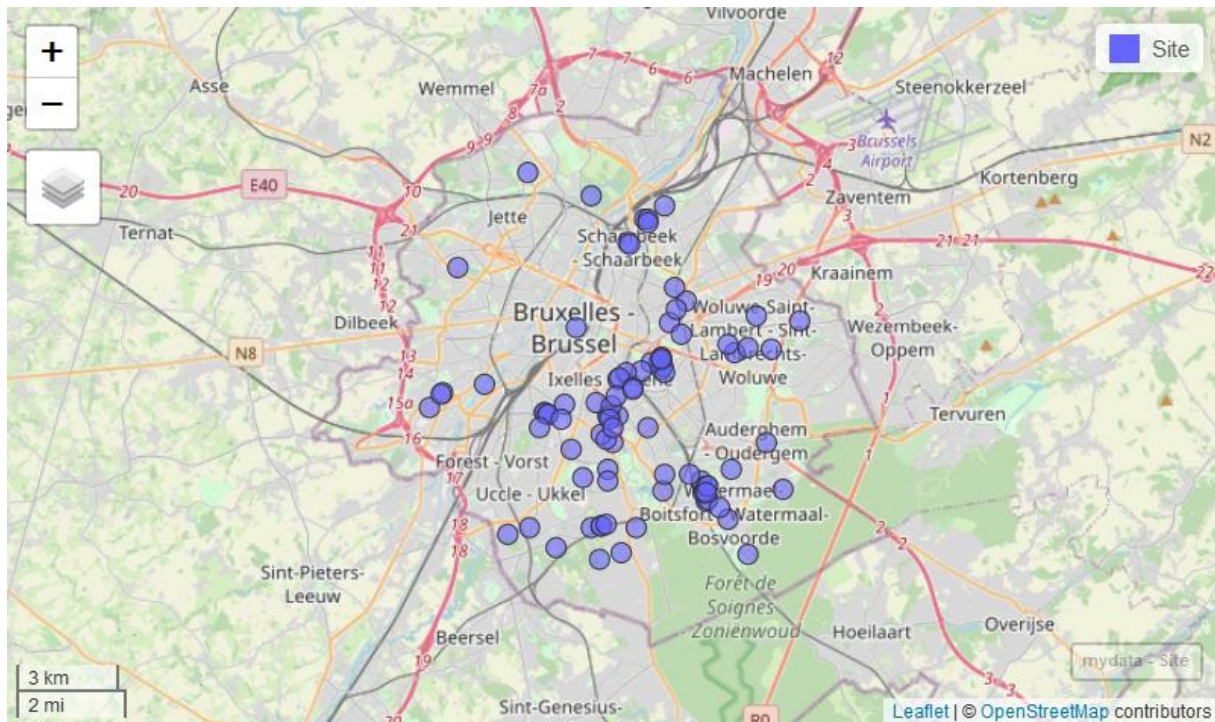
174 For the particle size analysis, a principal component analysis (PCA) was performed to determine whether
175 similarities in particle size preferences among ground-nesting species could be attributed to specific families (as

176 shown in Table 1) using *factoextra* (Kassambara and Fabian 2020) and *FactoMineR* (Lê et al. 2008) R packages.
177 Graphs were plotted using the *ggplot2* R package (Wickham 2016).

178 Results

179 Participatory survey and site validation

180 Between 5 April and 31 July 2020, 163 sites throughout BCR fulfilled the criteria for our online form and were
181 surveyed subsequently. A total of 89 sites have been validated (Fig. 2). The municipalities of Ixelles (n=16),
182 Watermael-Boitsfort (n=13) and Uccle (n=13) had the largest number of sites, while only few sites were situated
183 in Berchem-Saint-Agathe (n=1), Forest (n=1) and Auderghem (n=2) (Fig. S1). There was no coding by citizens of
184 Saint-Josse ten-Noode and Koekelberg municipalities.



185
186 **Fig. 2** Distribution map of the validated study sites in Brussels Capital Region (N=89)

187 Species recorded

188 We collected 153 specimens belonging to 22 species including 11 solitary bee species, 9 apoid wasp species and
189 2 chrysid species (Table 1).

190 **Table 1** List of apoid and chrysid families (in bold) and species collected at all sampling sites. The specific
191 abundance is presented on the right side of each species. Species names in black correspond to ground-nesting,

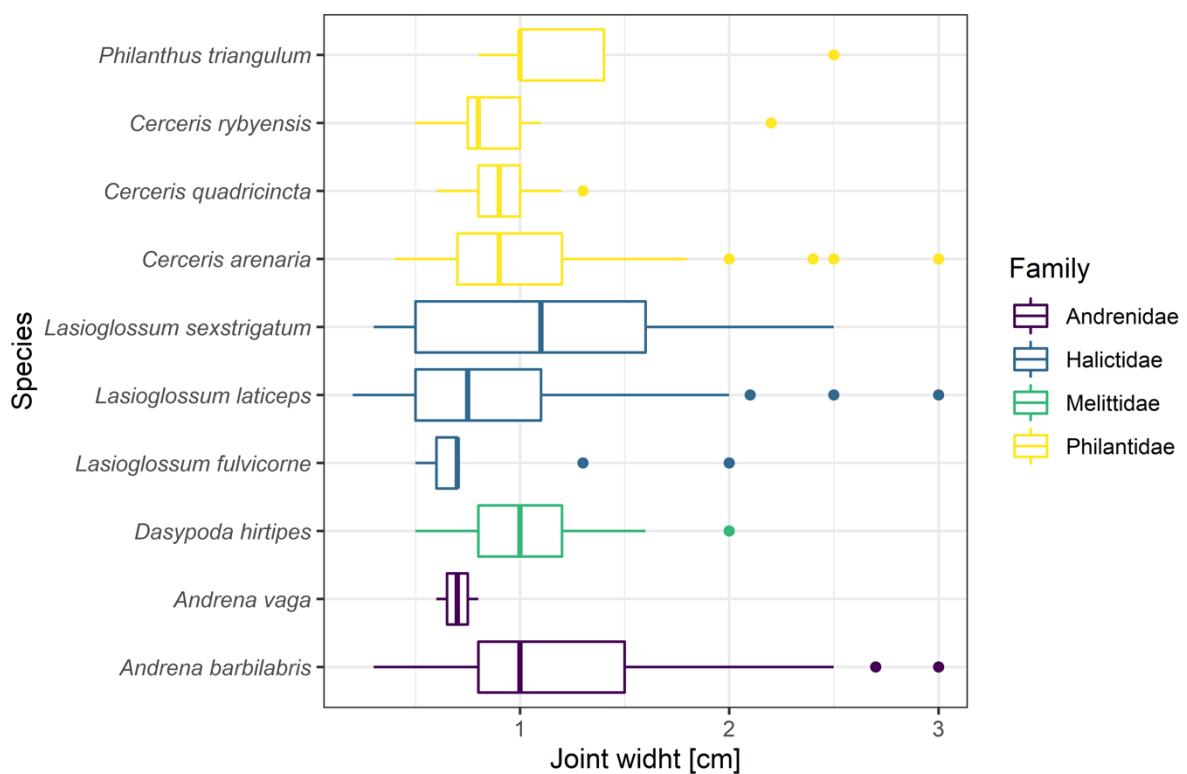
192 non-parasitoid species, while cuckoo species are highlighted in red. The apoid wasp families were defined
 193 according to Sann et al. (2018).

Solitary bees	Total/number	Apoid and chrysid wasps	Total/number
Andrenidae	33	Philantidae	37
<i>Andrena barbilabris</i> (Kirby, 1802)	30	<i>Cerceris arenaria</i> (L.)	26
<i>Andrena vaga</i> (Panzer, 1799)	3	<i>Cerceris quadricincta</i> (Panzer, 1799)	4
Melittidae	8	<i>Cerceris rybyensis</i> (L., 1791)	5
<i>Dasypoda hirtipes</i> (Fabricius, 1793)	8	<i>Philanthus triangulum</i> (Fabricius, 1775)	2
Halictidae	36	Bembicidae	1
<i>Lasioglossum fulvicorne</i> (Kirby, 1802)	2	<i>Gorytes planifrons</i> (Wesmael, 1852)	1
<i>Lasioglossum laticeps</i> (Schenck, 1868)	20	Crabronidae	6
<i>Lasioglossum sexstrigatum</i> (Schenck, 1868)	7	<i>Lindenus pygmaeus armatus</i> (Rossi, 1794)	4
<i>Sphecodes crassus</i> Thomson, 1870	2	<i>Oxybelus bipunctatus</i> Olivier, 1812	2
<i>Sphecodes miniatus</i> Hagens, 1892	1	Psenidae	2
<i>Sphecodes monilicornis</i> (Kirby, 1802)	1	<i>Mimesa lutaria</i> (Fabricius, 1787)	2
<i>Sphecodes pellucidus</i> Smith, 1845	3	Pemphredonidae	3
Apidae	5	<i>Diodontus insidiosus</i> Spooner, 1938	3
<i>Nomada alboguttata</i> (Herrich-Schäffer, 1839)	5	Chrysididae	22
		<i>Hedychrum gerstaeckeri</i> Chévrier, 1869	4
		<i>Hedychrum nobile</i> (Scopoli, 1763)	18

194
 195 The most abundant species found at the study sites were *A. barbilabris*, *C. arenaria*, *L. laticeps* and *H. nobile*. We
 196 also collected corresponding cleptoparasite and parasitoid species, namely *N. alboguttata*, *Sphecodes* spp., *H.*
 197 *gerstaeckeri*, and *H. nobile* (Table 1). Most sites had a single ground-nesting species (excluding cleptoparasite and
 198 parasitoid species). However, some of the sampled sites showed that co-occurrence of several nesting species was
 199 possible between solitary wasps and solitary bees, but also between different bee species and between different
 200 wasp species (Fig. S2).

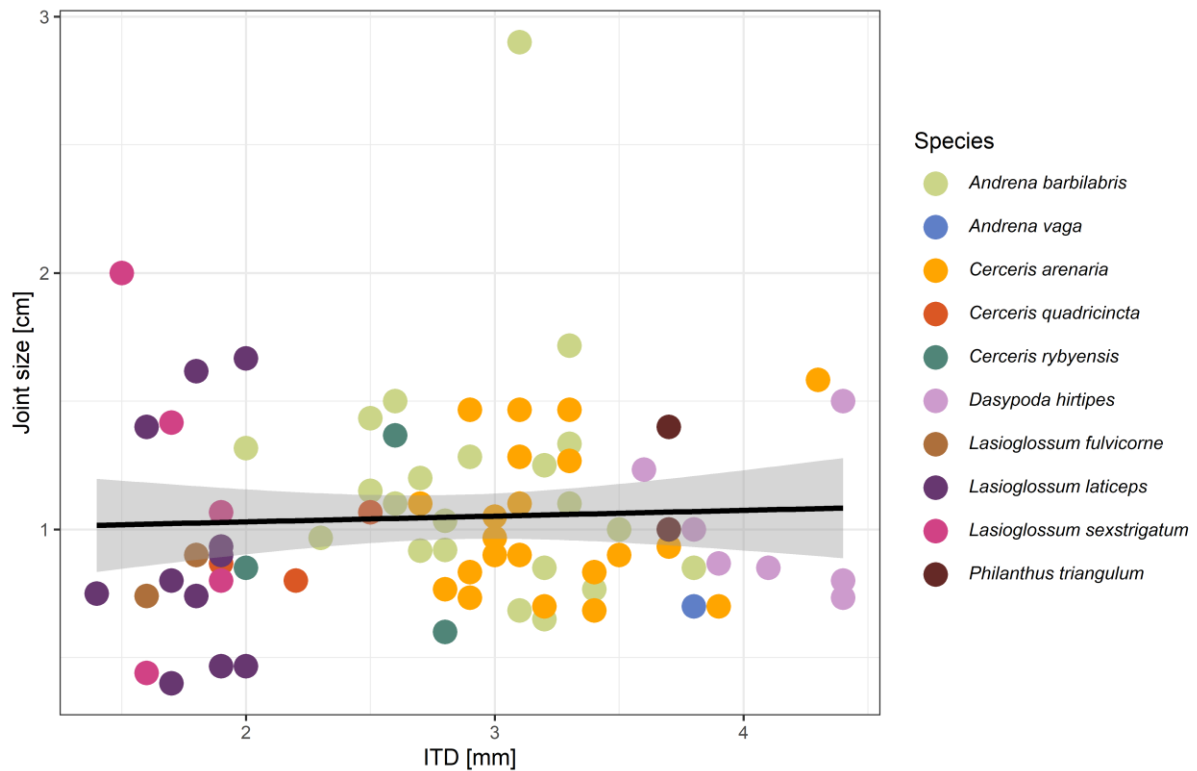
201 Joint Size Analysis

202 A total of 398 joint measurements at 69 validated sites corresponded to the nest entrance locations of 10 ground-
 203 nesting species (Fig. 3). The mean joint size for all species was $1.08 \text{ cm} \pm 0.57 \text{ cm}$ with a maximum measured at
 204 3.00 cm and a minimum at 0.20 cm. Details for all studied species are given in Table S1. A significant difference
 205 in mean joint size was observed between different ground-nesting species (F-stat = 1.97; df = 9; p-value = 0.041).
 206 However, after adjusting for multiple comparisons, no pairs of species differing in their joint size were detected
 207 (p-value > 0.05). After excluding 9 sites due to degraded individuals (without ITD measurements), the linear
 208 regression of the mean joint size and ITD size was performed on 80 observations of ground-nesting specimens.
 209 ITD did not explain the selection of joint size among the species (F-stat = 0.16; df = 78; p-value = 0.69; Fig. 4).



210

211 **Fig. 3** Distribution of joint sizes for nest entrances (in cm) according to different ground-nesting species and their
 212 respective families.



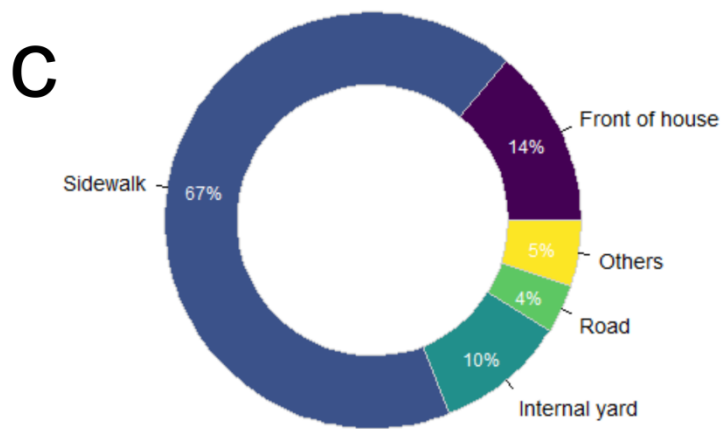
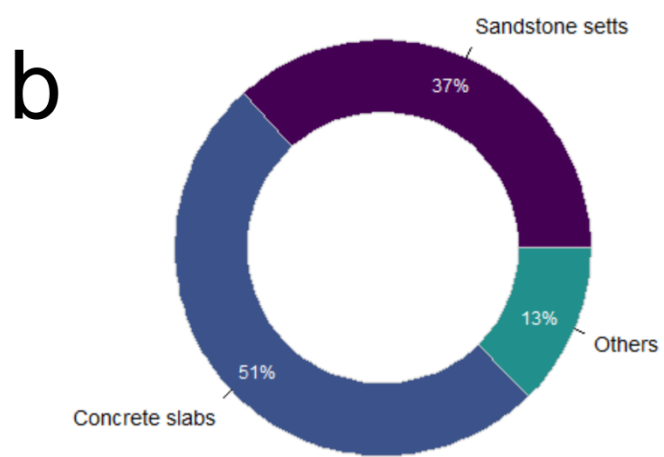
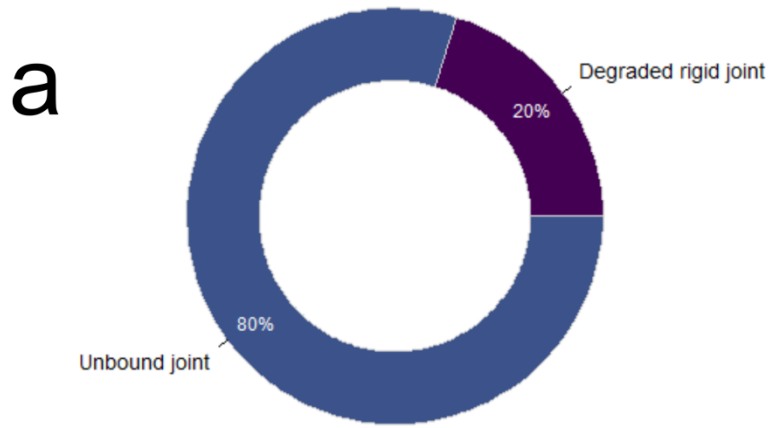
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214 **Fig. 4** Linear regression of inter-tegular distance average (ITD in mm) and joint size average (in cm). Colors
 215 corresponded to different ground-nesting species. Grey shade area indicates 95% confidence interval region
 216 computed from means.

217 **Joint structure and pavement type**

218 After excluding 10 sites because they did not meet our classification (i.e. hybrid pavement, ..), a total of 79 sites
 219 were characterized. The joints were mostly unbound, accounting for 80% of the sites encountered, while 20% of
 220 the joints were characterized as rigid and degraded, leaving openings for ground-nesting species to dig and nest
 221 (Fig. 5a). In terms of composition, the pavements were mainly composed of concrete slabs (40 sites) and sandstone
 222 setts (29 sites) (Fig. 5b). The remaining sites were composed of sandstone or limestone paving stones (3 sites),
 223 concrete paving blocs (4 sites), ceramic paving flags (1 site), porphyry setts (1 site) and blue stone elements (1
 224 site). Regarding to the location of nests on the pavements (Fig. 5c), most were located on sidewalks (53 sites)
 225 while some were located on roads (3 sites) and in the internal courtyards of houses (8 sites). Some sites were
 226 located only at the level of house steps (11 sites) or sometimes spilling over onto sidewalks (2 sites). Only one site
 227 was characterized on stair steps and another one was characterized with an overflow of the ground-nesting
 228 aggregation from the embankment to the sidewalk.

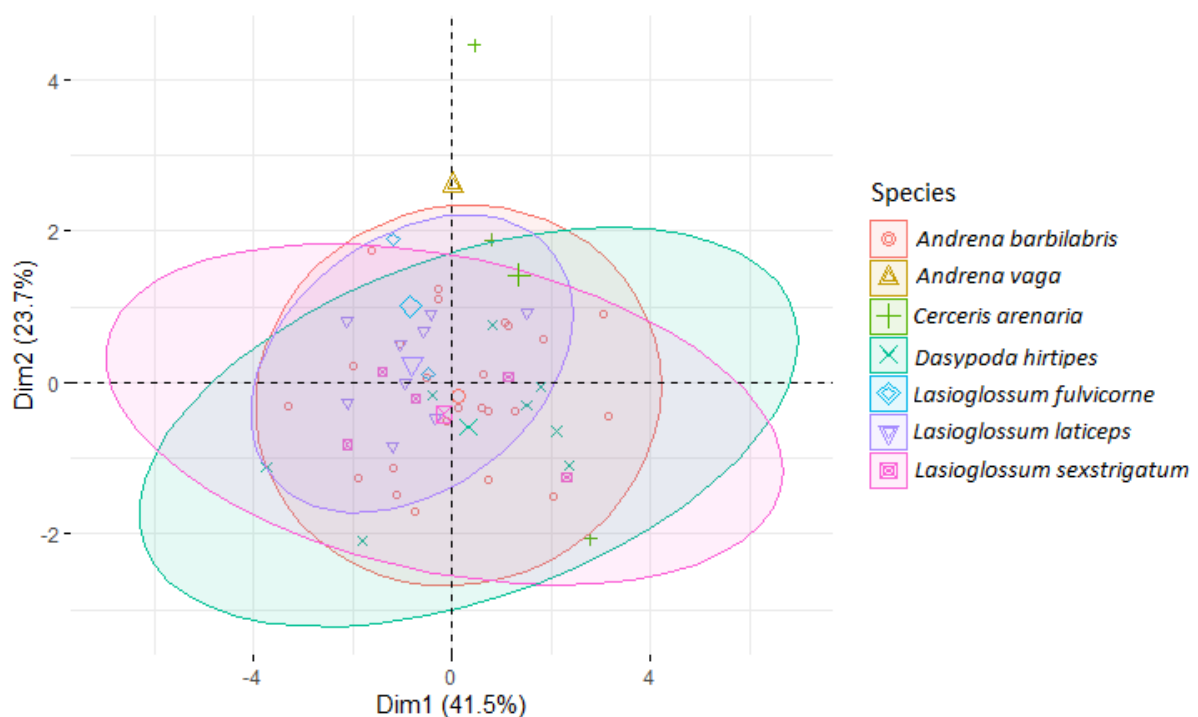
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231 **Fig. 5** Distribution (%) from 79 study sites of joint types (a), kinds of urban pavement on which nests were located
232 (b) and nest locations on urban pavements by site (c).

233 Soil texture analysis

234 A total of 53 sandy mound samples were analysed for grain size. The particle size analysis method did not allow
235 us to distinguish between clay and silt composition. The sandy fraction of the samples was always higher than
236 85% and the silt and clay fractions were always lower than 10%, classifying all samples as sandy and homogeneous
237 in texture (Fig. S3). On average, the samples were composed of 2.91% of particles larger than 1mm in diameter
238 (i.e., very coarse sands) and 2.61% smaller than 50 μm (i.e., clays and silts). Particles with a diameter of 500 μm
239 - 200 μm (i.e., medium sands) were the most abundant in the samples with a proportion of 41.71%. The samples
240 contained on average 7.47% of particles in the 1 mm – 500 μm class (i.e., coarse sands), 13.40% of particles with
241 a diameter of 100 μm – 50 μm (i.e., very fine sands) and 31.90% of 200 μm – 100 μm (i.e., fine sands) (Fig. S4).
242 PCA did not detect distinguished clusters or discontinuities of the sandy samples according to the ground-nesting
243 species or their respective families (Fig. 6).



244 **Fig. 6** Principal component analysis (PCA) of collected tumuli samples grouping with 80% confidence ellipses by
245 ground-nesting species. Dimensions 1 and 2 showed 65.2% of the explained variance. Coloured and shaped points
246 (N = 53) corresponded to the ground-nesting species.
247

248 Discussion

249 Monitored species

250 At present, knowledge about adaptations of these ground-nesting bees to the urban environments is patchy,
251 particularly with regards to their nesting strategies (Wenzel et al. 2020b; Antoine and Forrest 2021; Ayers and
252 Rehan 2021). In our study, we were able to confirm the observations of Pauly (2019a) and Haeseler (1982) for *D.*
253 *hirtipes*, *L. laticeps* and *A. barbilabris* (the latter also having been mentioned by Falk (2015)), but not for the
254 Halictidae bee species *Lasioglossum calceatum* (Scopoli, 1763), *Halictus rubicundus* (Christ, 1791) and,
255 *Sphecodes puncticeps* Thomson, 1870 and, for the Andrenidae bee species *Panurgus calcaratus* (Scopoli 1763).
256 We may have missed the presence of this oligolectic specimen of *Heriacium* spp. (Asteraceae) due to its summer
257 phenology (Rasmont and Haubruge 2002). However, some species of ground-nesting bees or their associated
258 cleptoparasites were identified for the first-time nesting under the urban pavements: *A. vaga*, *L. fulvicorne*, *S.*
259 *crassus*, *S. monilicornis* and, *N. alboguttata*. These 11 species of ground-nesting bees and cuckoo bees rather
260 common, and are not concerned by an extinction status in Belgium and Europe with stable populations, except for
261 *A. barbilabris* whose Belgian populations are reported to be increasing (Nieto et al. 2014; Drossart et al. 2019).
262 All wild bees are polylectic except for *A. vaga* and *D. hirtipes* which are specialists for *Salix* spp. (Salicaceae) and
263 some genera of Asteraceae, respectively (Rasmont and Haubruge 2002). Compared to the co-occurrence data with
264 their associated hosts (Fig. S2), it appears that *L. laticeps* may be a new host for the cuckoo *S. crassus*, although
265 we cannot confirm the association by an observed entry into the nest. We also captured a specimen of *S.*
266 *monilicornis* which would be a potential cuckoo bee of *L. laticeps* (Bogusch 2003). We can confirm Vegter's
267 (1993) observations of large numbers of *S. miniatus* parasitizing *L. sexstrigatum* nests. Finally, three specimens of
268 *S. pellucidus* and five of *N. alboguttata* were captured at sites of its known host *A. barbilabris* (Witt 1992; Rasmont
269 and Haubruge 2002).

270 In the scientific literature, only one mention of 9 apoid ground-nesting wasps and 1 spider wasp species
271 (Hymenoptera: Pompilidae) in urban pavements of the city of Oldenburg (Germany) has been reported by Haeseler
272 (1982). Our document is therefore the second written mention of apoid wasps nesting under urban pavements with
273 8 new species (only *O. bipunctatus* is present in both studies). As in Haeseler (1982), the species richness of apoid
274 wasps in BCR is greater than that of the identified ground-nesting bees. The three *Cerceris* species are solitary
275 wasps that nest on sandy substrates. They capture and paralyse small Coleoptera for their offspring, especially
276 Curculionidae or Chrysomelidae specimens for *C. arenaria* and *C. quadricincta* while *C. rybiensis* specialises in

277 capturing small species of halictid bees (Bitsch et al. 1997). *H. gerstaekeri* and *H. nobile* are known as their nest
278 parasitoid wasps. *P. triangulum*, commonly known as the "beewolf", is a predatory apoid species that is widespread
279 in Europe. It is a specialist predator of *Apis mellifera* L., but can exceptionally substitute for other wild bee genera
280 (e.g. *Andrena* spp., *Dasygaster* spp.) (Bitsch et al. 1997).

281 Surprisingly, other species of apoid wasps belonging to other genera, smaller and less frequently captured, were
282 also found among the pavement inhabitants. These were *G. planifrons*, *D. insidiosus*, *M. lutaria*, *O. bipunctatus*
283 and *L. pygmaeus armatus*. Their nests often consist of a single gallery leading to the larval cell(s) in sandy soils.
284 Like *Cerceris* spp., the adults are generalist predators. Their prey consists mainly of specimens belonging to the
285 families Cicadellidae, Fulgoridae, Cercopidae, Membracidae, micro-Diptera or micro-Hymenoptera (Bitsch and
286 Leclercq 1993; Bitsch et al. 1997, 2007). These small apoid wasps are common species in Belgium (Bitsch et al.
287 1997) and have no conservation status in Belgium, although *G. planifrons* is considered as very rare (Schmid-
288 Egger et al. 2010). However, *L. pygmaeus armatus* is a rare psammophilous species in Belgium, with only two
289 observations since 1950 despite its wide European range (Bitsch and Leclercq 1993; Rasmont and Haubruge 2002).
290 This species was observed on 4 different sites in BRC, suggesting that it nests frequently on BRC pavements and
291 could therefore be the subject of a conservation project. Another interesting finding of our study was that the nest
292 aggregation was mixed with species such as *C. arenaria* and *D. hirtipes* in many sites (Fig. S2). From our sampling
293 protocol, it was difficult to observe nest differentiation or sharing between ground-nesting species. Furthermore,
294 intraspecific individuals of *Cerceris* species can co-occupy the same nest (Willmer 1985; Polidori et al. 2006),
295 which calls into question their strictly solitary behaviour. Therefore, it would be interesting to excavate the nest
296 and observe whether both species groups share their larval cell structure.

297 Our sampling was limited to a single sampling period of 30 - 45 minutes. It is likely that the entire diversity per
298 site was not sampled. It should be noted that nest-aggregations are dynamic systems and the counts taken only
299 reflect a moment in time in the life of ground-nesting insect populations and communities. From a spatial point of
300 view, this study was limited to the Belgian capital with its own urbanization and climatic conditions. Therefore,
301 an extension of this study to other large cities (e.g., Paris or Berlin) could highlight other species of ground-nesting
302 bees and wasps in urban pavements and which may have different conservation issues. Finally, nests in crowded
303 streets with large nest aggregations and large identified species such as *Andrena* spp., *D. hirtipes*, *P. triangulum*
304 or even *Cerceris* spp. were more prone to be detected. On the other hand, small species nesting within the
305 pavements such as *Lasioglossum* spp. or the other small-sized apoid species (Table 1) may have been undetected
306 because they were located in less frequented streets, and characterized by small nest clusters with poorly visible

307 sand mounds. We can therefore assume that our sampling effort may have overestimated the number of large
308 species and underestimated small species.

309 **Joint size and pavement structure**

310 Joint sizes in BCR vary from 1mm to 1.5cm depending on the shape of the pavement element and the maximum
311 diameter of the jointing material (Bruxelles-Mobilité 2016). However, during our observations, we found that the
312 size of the jointing material at the entrance to the galleries fluctuated around a wider average, with no real
313 distinction between species or families of apoids. An increase in distance between two tiles or slabs is likely to
314 lead to degradation of the pavement. Otherwise, we did not observe any preference for joint size according to the
315 taxonomy or the species size suggesting that the measured ITD was generally sufficient to allow a wide range of
316 species to pass through the narrowest joint measured.

317 All sites showed openings in the joints between the pavement tiles, which allowed the ground-nesting species to
318 dig their galleries. Nest entrances could be observed if (1) jointing material was absent, (2) jointing material was
319 unbound or (3) bound jointing material was degraded. The presence of galleries in cracks of bonded joints
320 highlighted in the results was rather surprising. These structures were designed to be completely closed and did
321 not allow insects to nest. At the same time, however, we observed deterioration of the pavement and fragmentation
322 of the jointing material. This could be explained by the poor quality of the rigid joint or its age, which affected the
323 durability and cohesion of the material, making it more prone to disintegration during any disturbance such as
324 shrinkage cracking or freeze/thaw episodes. Alternatively, ground-nesting species of bees and wasps could be
325 involved in the degradation of the modular structures and in particular their joints, as bees are able to dig into hard-
326 packed soils (Barthell et al. 1988; Cane 1991).

327 A BCR pavement with unbound jointing materials is theoretically always coupled with underlying permeable and
328 draining layers (i.e., sand, gravel, stone) in order to avoid water stagnation in the structure and its deterioration
329 (CRR 2009, 2018). This combination seems to correspond to the criteria of sandy texture and drainage of the soil
330 material generally required by ground-nesting bees and wasps in their natural environment. Indeed, a soil that is
331 too waterlogged, flooded or too dry can jeopardise the survival capacity of individuals in immature stages
332 (Wuellner 1999). Most of the pavements consisted of sandstone blocks and concrete slabs. This suggests that
333 pavement thickness and type may have little effect on nesting site preference for any ground-nesting species. These
334 results raised many questions about the possible multiplicity of gallery forms within the substrate. Although we
335 were able to determine the depth at which we found individuals of *A. barbilabris* (see supplementary information

336 1), the architecture of the sub-pavement nests remains unknown: do the galleries penetrate deep into the different
337 layers that make up the paving, or do they extend to the first few centimetres below the paving? In addition, we
338 can wonder whether the choice of nest site was due to a preference for concrete slabs and sandstone pavement, or
339 whether their location was simply the result of the greater availability of these types of paving in the BCR.

340 As for the results relating to the location of the sites on the pavement, they enable us to highlight phenomena that
341 had not been recorded to our knowledge in the literature until now. Indeed, although our observations suggested
342 that many individuals nested on pavements only, we also observed nesting sites at the level of house steps and
343 stairways. This observation was accompanied by a lack of jointing material along these terraced houses, which
344 allowed easier access to the sandy stratum under the pavements for ground-nesting species. It was mainly
345 *Lasioglossum* spp. and non-Philantidae wasp species that preferred to nest in this type of location, which also
346 should allow them to benefit from higher temperatures due to indirect solar radiation (Cane 2015) that first reaches
347 the facades of the terraced houses.

348 **Soil texture analysis**

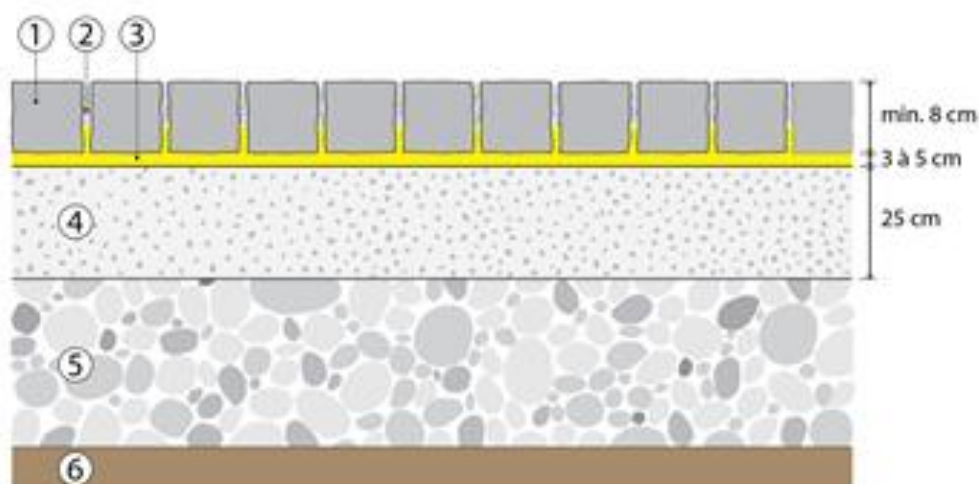
349 The particle size analysis revealed that the mound samples corresponded to the sandy texture. This texture
350 classification was consistent with observations made by Cane (1991) on 32 species of ground-nesting bees in the
351 USA, by Vereecken *et al.*, (2006) for *A. vaga*, Malyshev (1935) and Michez (2007) for *D. hirtipes*, and Falk (2015)
352 for the 6 remaining bee species, which determined that these ground-nesting bees built their nests on sandy-
353 textured soils. However, while these authors noted a variety of other used textures, such as silt loam and clay loam
354 for Cane (1991), sandy-clay soils also for Vereecken *et al.*, (2006) or clay soils also for Michez (2007), our study
355 highlighted only one type of texture used by the bees to dig their galleries. This means that the foundation layer
356 could be homogeneous in all BCR pavements if it was of sandy origin. On the other hand, promoting a sandy and
357 homogeneous texture through urban redevelopment would disproportionately favour specific populations
358 associated with this effective ecological niche.

359 **Implications for urban pavement design and their management**

360 A suitable pavement for ground-nesting species consists of sandstone pavers or concrete slabs with an unbound
361 jointing size around 1cm on an unbound foundation. However, this pavement hosting ground-nesting species was
362 only an archetype (Fig. 7) from the results of our study. It seems difficult to modify the requirements of the standard
363 specifications established by the BCR specifications, as these are the basic rules to guarantee the durability of the

364 pavement (Bruxelles-Mobilité 2016). While natural stone pavements with wide and unbound joint were more
365 favourable as nesting sites for the studied apoid species, these generally offer a lower level of pedestrian comfort
366 (Bertrand et al. 2019) and are not fully compatible with the durability requirements of the BCR specifications
367 which recommend modular structures of the bonded type and with joint openings less than or equal to 1 cm
368 (Bruxelles-Mobilité 2016).

369 This finding highlights a mismatch between the societal demands of BCR and the environmental opportunities.
370 We therefore propose new pilot studies to assess the possibility of designing multifunctional pavements that could
371 simultaneously meet the challenges of comfort, durability, entomobiodiversity and rainwater infiltration. Either
372 through technological advances in paving block design, or by differentiating pavements with a central area
373 dedicated to pedestrians (no or thin joints) and a peripheral area dedicated to the reception of ground-nesting
374 species and water infiltration (wide joint openings, draining material, vegetated or not), or by creating and/or
375 maintaining a vegetated strip at the periphery of pavements, as may exist in BCR allotments (Fig. S5). It would
376 also be interesting to foster actions to initiate and reinforce a paradigm shift in the city's aesthetic criteria: "untidy"
377 and "unfunctional" pavements in the human-centred city could become "multifunctional" pavements in the bio-
378 centred city (Aronson et al. 2017; Rivkin et al. 2019). It would be very interesting to link this multifunctionality
379 not only to biodiversity (i.e., offering nesting opportunities for ground-dwelling wild bees and other insects), but
380 also with a potential for water leaching and an urgently needed reduction of soil sealing in urban areas (Fini et al.
381 2017)..



382

383 **Fig. 7** The pavement structure : (1) Paving elements ; (2) Joints with an opening size of 0.8 to 1.0cm, filled with
384 sand 0/6.3 or 0/8 (fine content less or equal than 10%); (3) Laying course: gravel 2/6,3 or 2/8 (fine content less or

385 equal than 2%); (4) Road base: unbound aggregate 0/20 or 0/40; (5) Sub-base with defined thickness according to
386 the construction plan; (6) Subgrade

387 **Conclusions**

388 Our results show that sealed surfaces in urban areas do not always lead to the total loss of nesting opportunities as
389 suggested by Cane et al., (2006) and Fortel et al., (2016). On the contrary, our study highlighted the opportunity
390 of these structures in terms of nesting resources in the city. Our observations tend to confirm the hypothesis put
391 forward by Pauly (2019a), who stated that among all the pavement types in BRC, the old pavements in BCR -
392 where the soil under the paving stones was sandy and where the joints were not cemented - were the most
393 hospitable for ground-nesting bees and consequently for ground-nesting wasps. Unfortunately, these older BCR
394 pavements are more prone to be redeveloped into pavement that is less suitable as nesting sites by the city of
395 Brussels. This study suggests that pavements, previously thought to be unsuitable for biodiversity, may provide a
396 refuge for some insect populations. Therefore, by modulating pavement design and proposing alternative
397 construction models, we could make the city a more welcoming place for biodiversity.

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- 551
- 552

553 **Statements & Declarations**

554 **Funding**

555 This study was made possible with the financial support from Bruxelles Environnement (BE) through the
556 STREETBEES project 2019G0250. GN & FF have received research support from BE.

557 **Competing Interests**

558 The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose

559 **Author Contributions**

560 All authors contributed to the study conception and study design. Material preparation and data collection were
561 performed by Grégoire Noël, Violette Van Keymeulen, Sylvie Smets and Olivier Van Damme. Analysis was
562 performed by Grégoire Noël and Violette Van Keymeulen. The first draft of the manuscript was written by
563 Grégoire Noël and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved
564 the final manuscript.

565 **Acknowledgements**

566 Thanks to Julie Bonnet (ULiège, Functional and Evolutionary Entomology) for the insect preparation and some
567 identifications.

568 **Data availability**

569 The R code and the data used in this paper are available at https://github.com/gregnoel/Street_Apoid.git